DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 232 281 EA 015 843

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TITLE Unemployment of Educated Youth in Asia: A Comparative Analysis of the Situation in India, Bangladesh and the Philippines.
INSTITUTION United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). International Inst. for Educational Planning.
REPORT NO IIEP-OP-60
PUB DATE Dec 81
NOTE 61p.
AVAILABLE FROM Publications, International Institute for Educational Planning, 7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix, 76016 Paris, FRANCE (Order No. C.51; Frs. 10.00).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Career Guidance; Comparative Analysis; Developing Nations; Educational Status Comparison; *Education Work Relationship; *Employment Patterns; *Employment Problems; *Employment Statistics; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Labor Market; Socioeconomic Background; Tables (Data); *Unemployment
IDENTIFIERS Bangladesh; India (West Bengal); Philippines

ABSTRACT

This study of unemployment among university graduates in West Bengal (India), Bangladesh, and the Philippines provides socioeconomic and educational characteristics of these areas, a comparative analysis of unemployment, and suggested measures for reducing unemployment. The International Institute for Educational Planning studies, focusing on university students, employed and unemployed graduates, and employers, provided the database. Differences in the questionnaires used in the three countries and failure to consider the unemployment situation of secondary school graduates are among the study's limitations. Socioeconomic characteristics include statistics on population size and growth rate, gross national product (GNP) per capita, and GNP growth rate. Educational characteristics considered include the percentage of the population that is illiterate, public education expenditures, and rates of return to various levels of education. Comparative unemployment data examined are time spent waiting for employment, a profile of unemployed grauates (by sex and area of residence), guardians' education and income, reasons for unemployment (such as inadequate training, financial support, career information, and placement services), and a lack of self-employment opportunities. Suggested measures for reducing unemployment include better interaction between employers and educational institutions, improved career and educational counseling, improved placement services, and promotion of self-employment opportunities. (PB)

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Unemployment of educated youth in Asia: a comparative analysis of the situation in India, Bangladesh and the Philippines

A.K. Das

EA 015 843

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Unemployment of educated youth in Asia: a comparative analysis of the situation in India, Bangladesh and the Philippines

IIEP Occasional Papers No. 60

UNEMPLOYMENT OF EDUCATED YOUTH IN ASIA: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SITUATION IN INDIA[x], BANGLADESH AND THE PHILIPPINES

A.K. Das

[x] India is a very big country, both in terms of size and population. Moreover, Education in India is a state subject with limited federal intervention. Thus development and content of education may have different characteristics in different states. Same is true in the endeavour of the states in relating education to employment. Hence only one state in India, viz. West Bengal, has been considered throughout this paper except in Section 2.

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Printed in France by the
International Institute for Educational Planning
7-9 rue Eugène-Delacroix, 75016 Paris

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1. INTRODUCTION

Unemployment of educated youth has, for quite some time, become a growing concern all over the world. The problem is particularly acute in the developing countries. In the Asian context this problem has been studied from different standpoints by different individuals and organisations (1). The present paper will deal with three countries in Asia.

We begin our discussion with some general comments on the measurement of educated unemployment in less developed, labour surplus economies.

The term "educated" is, in some studies, taken to mean only the level of education. Apart from the level of education a range of possibilities like formal, non-formal informal, general, technical, vocational etc. education and training is associated with the term educated and this makes its measurement complex. There is also the complexity of expressing the unemployment rate as a ratio of the total stock or active stock of the educated manpower. While it is easy to calculate total stocks, the calculation of active stock by levels and types of education is often inaccurate. The questions of "visible underemployment" and "invisible employment"also need consideration in the above calculation. (2) It should also be noted that what we find as an unemployment phenomenon is the "tip of the iceberg" because of the massive underemployment and underutilisation of human resources prevailing in many developing countries.

The rate of unemployment, again, varies with the definition of "labour force". Thus, if working at least one day per week is considered as employment, the definition of "labour force" will be much

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(1) See reference 2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,11,16,17,18,22,24

(2) See Blang (3, p 33-34)

higher than if employment is considered as at least 30 hours of work per week. Consequently, the rate of unemployment in the former case will be much lower than in the latter. (1)

In this connection one has also to take into account the fact that in a majority of the cases, unemployment is not a permanent, but a temporary phenomenon. Thus the period of "unemployment" may be the same "average waiting time" for getting a job depending on the definition of "labour force".

In the present paper we shall deal with the problem of unemployment as this is perceived and defined by the countries under study. This reduces, to some extent, the comparability of the results. However, in some basic characteristics of the phenomenon of unemployment, the uniformity of definition will be retained to allow for comparability.

1.1 An overview of the situation

We now look into the existing unemployment situation of the three countries under comparison within the framework of the definition of "labour force" of each country. For this purpose we will have to depend essentially on the census or other survey data of each country and in all the three cases, these are very out of date.

No data on the unemployment incidence was collected in the last Indian census in 1971. The survey of the Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics conducted in West Bengal, India in 1971 reveals that there was a 5.6 per cent unemployment level in the state. It was also revealed by this survey that about one quarter of the unemployed persons' core was secondary and college or university graduates. (2)

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(1) For detailed discussion, see Myrdal (18, p 2201-21)

(2) Supplementary Report on Unemployment Survey, 1971, State Bureau of Applied Economics and Statistics.

While in Bangladesh it is observed that the unemployment rate of people possessing the above-mentioned educational qualifications is 44 percent with a further 17 per cent being under-employed. These data refer to 1974. (1). In the Philippines, a survey conducted in 1976 shows that 5.2 per cent of the labour force was unemployed in addition to under-employment of 10.7 per cent (2). A project of supply and demand of the labour force for the year 2000 in this country shows that 33.7 per cent of the labour force having one to four years of college education will remain unemployed. (3) With this basic information on the phenomenon of unemployment we now move on to the details of the present exercise.

1.2 Objectives of the paper

This paper will seek to establish possible measures that can be taken to reduce unemployment of university graduates in the countries under study, by analysing the different reasons for unemployment in these country, taking into account the peculiarities of the socio-economic and educational characteristics of each country. An attempt will also be made to develop some suggestions towards policy decisions in respect of future educational development in these countries so that the worlds of education and work may be brought closer to each other, thereby increasing the employability of the university graduates.

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(1) Employment Marked for the Educated in Bangladesh, Dacca, 1974

(2) National Census and Statistics Office, the Philippines, 1976

(3) Mangahas (et al.) (16 Table 8)

1.3 Methodology

This paper will be based mainly on the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) studies in these three countries. The methodology followed in these studies looks into the problem of the relationship between education and employment from the point of view of the individual (student, then worker) and that of the institution (enterprises or employers). For details the reader is referred to the studies. In writing this paper, the following steps have been followed:

(1) Comparative analysis of the socio-economic and educational characteristics of the three countries.
(2) Statistical analysis of the individual profiles - students, employed and unemployed graduate parents and employers.
(3) Secondary analysis of other data related to education and employment.

1.4 Sources of Information

As already mentioned in the above section, the main data base for this paper will be the IIEP studies in these three countries. (1) These studies were mainly on university students and graduates and samples were taken from existing students, unemployed and employed graduates and the employers (enterprises).

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(1) See Reference (13,15,15). Henceforth these studies will be referred to as IIEP India, Bangaldesh and Philippines studies. As stated earlier IIEP India study is actually the study on West Bengal.

The sizes of the samples in these studies are given in the following table.

Table I Sample size of country studies

Study of	India	Bangladesh	The Philippines
Students	1928	681	9105
Graduates	1793	331	4655
Employers	32	15	777

Source: IIEP India, Bangladesh and the Philippines studies

For certain other data reference will be made to the Unesco Yearbook, ILO Labour Statistics, other ILO publications and the World Bank, the Census or survey data of the respective countrie. Reference will be made in the text as and when relevant data will be extracted from any other source.

1.5 Limitations

In view of the main dependence of this paper on the IIEP studies, limitations of the paper will be the same as those of the studies (1). As the sociological aspects of the individuals of the three countries were different, the comparison of their responses may not always lead to the same implications as have been mentioned in this paper. Differences in the format and formulation of the questionnaires for the different countries made the scope of comparison of certain characteristics

(1) For a detailed list of limitations, see IIEP India study.

rather limited. It is also felt that the employment situation of the secondary graduates should also have been considered. This was not possible because of the limited nature of the present paper. The same is also true when consideration has not been taken of the income differential of the graduates.

2. SOME SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE THREE COUNTRIES

The analysis of the problem of unemployment vis-à-vis education should take into account the socio-economic and educational characteristics of the countries. Hence we start our discussion by comparing the socio-economic and educational framework of the three countries.

2.1 Socio-economic Characteristics

Table II shows the basic demographic and economic data of the three countries. There is an enormous difference in population size in these countries. India having about 14 times the population of the Philippines and 8 times the population of Bangladesh. In respect of the growth rate of the population, the GNP and GDP in the Philippines is much higher than the other two countries. This can also be said in respect of GNP per capita. Bangladesh has a strange phenomenon of negative groth rate in GNP with the highest percentage of GDP from agriculture and the lowest GDP from industry, followed by India in the same order, although India's percentage of GDP from industry is double that of Bangladesh's. The Philippines has the highest GDP from the services in spite of the fact that their percentage share of GDP from industry is the highest in the three countries.

The socio-economic setting is extremely important for determining the nature of labour force of a country. Thus the population growth and the per capita income are measures of the number and nature of the labour force. The relative share of different sectors

and nature of the labour force. The relative share of different sectors in the gross domestic product gives an indication of the extent of employment in those sectors. Lastly, the rate of growth of the gross national product determines the extent to which the employment opportunity can be extended.

Table II Socio-Economic Characteristics

Characteristic Country	India	Bangladesh	The Philippines
Population size (millions),1978	643.9	84.7	45.6
Population growth rate (1970-78)	2.0	2.7	2.7
GNP per capita (US$), 1978	150	90	510
GNP growth rate (1977-78)	1.4	0.4	2.6
GDP growth rate (1970-78)	3.7	2.9	6.3
Per cent GDP from Agriculture,1976)	40	57	27
Per cent GDP from Industry, 1978	26	13	35
Per cent GDP from Services, 1978	34	30	38

Source: World Bank, World Development Report, 1980

Note: The agricultural sector covers agriculture, forestry and fishing. The industrial sector comprises mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, water and gas. All other branches of economic activity are regarded as services.

2.2. Educational Characteristics

The differential educational characteristics of the countries under comparison is shown in Table III. The percentage of illiterate populace exceeds the 50 per cent mark in both India and Bangladesh. The percentage of people with secondary-plus educational qualifications is some 11 times higher in the Philippines than in Bangladesh and 9 times higher than in India. Enrolment rates also follow a similar pattern, this being much higher in the Philippines than in the other two countries. This requires clarification in respect of employability and the nature of the labour force in the respective countries.

As regards total public educational expenditure, the picture is somewhat different. India leads in this case where the said expenditure is expressed as a percentage of the gross national product, whereas Bangladesh leads where the expenditure is expressed as a percentage of all government expenditures. The question that arises here is whether a poor country like Bangladesh (see growth of GNP in Table II) should spend so much money on education in comparison with other sectors of economic development thereby generating more educated unemployment. The answer to this question is partly found in the percentage distribution of public recurrent educational expenditure by levels of education (Table III). It is seen from the table that one reason for comparatively more expenditure on education is the expansion of primary education. It is also interesting to note that the Philippines spends much less on secondary and higher education compared with the other two countries. Though in the case of the Philippines it is possible for private financing at these levels.(1) it is perhaps, worth investigating whether this has any bearing on the overall employment situations in the countries.

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(1) See Psacharopoulos and Sanyal (21, pp.4)

Table III Educational Characteristics

Characteristic	India	Bangladesh	Philippines
Illiterate population (%)	66.6	74.2	17.4
Population with secondary education-plus (%)	1.1	0.9	9.6
Total public educational expenditure			
- as % of GNP	2.9	1.4	1.9
- as % of all Government expenditure	9.4	13.6	11.4 +
Public recurrent expenditure (% distribution by level)			
- primary	21.2	57.0	65.7
- secondary	40.3	16.5	6.7
- higher	22.0	17.4	22.4 ++

Source: Unesco Statistical Year book, 1980

Note: Data refers to the mid-seventies.

+ expenditure for state universities and colleges not included

++ including capital expenditure on state universities and colleges

2.2.1 Returns to Education

In economic terms the rate of return to any level of education is directly related with the employment probability after completion at that particular level. It is an observed phenomenon in all developing countries that in spite of unemployment of graduates at different levels, there is a great demand for education in all countries. This is because of the fact that education is privately profitable at all levels in all countries. This will be demonstrated in the following analysis.

Let us now compare different rates of return to education in India and the Philippines. India being a vast country, it is rather difficult to undertake a comprehensive study on the rates of return for the whole country. Table IV shows different rates of return calculated by different authors from samples of various sections of population throughout the country or from a particular state.

Table IV Private and Social Rates of Return to Education, India and Tamil Nadu (percentage)

Author, Region & Reference Period	Private rates of return				Social rates of return			
	Lower Primary over illite-rates	Higher Primary over Lower Primary	Secondary over Higher Primary	Graduate over Secondary	Lower Primary over Illite-rates	Higher Primary over Lower Primary	Secon-dary over Higher Primary	Graduates over Secondary
Blang, Hayward & Woodhall (1969) Urban India, Males (1960-61) (1)	18.7	16.1	11.9	10.4	15.2	14.2	10.5	8.9
Pandit (1973) All India (1964-65) (2)	17.3	18.8	More than 26.5	-	13.4	15.5	More than 26.5	8.7
Adiseshiah, 1978 Tamil Nadu (1970-71)	39.6	6.9	83.5	7.4	22.4	5.5	74.7	7.0

(1) Blang et.al: (2, pp.237)
(2) Pandit: (20, pp.59-61)

It is observed from the table that in all cases the social rate of return is less than the private rate of return. It is also noted that except in the study of M. BLANG et. al. the return to secondary education over primary is higher than both to primary over illiterate and college over secondary. In Blang's study the rate of return is highest in lower primary education for which he argues that investment in primary education is most profitable and economically sound in India (1). It should, however, be noted that the rate of return calculated for primary education is always over-estimated because the earning differentials of primary graduates are very seldom due to increase in the number of years spent at primary level. Very often these earning differentials are due to other external factors. (2)

In the case of the Philippines these rates were calculated for the whole country as well as for a small town south of Manila, called Imus. These results are shown in the following table.

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(1) For a detailed discussion see M. Blang et. al. (2)

(2) For a detailed discussion see Sanyal (23)

Table V Private and social rates of return to education, Imus and the Philippines (percentage)

Author, Region and Reference Period	Private rates of return: Primary over illiterate	Private rates of return: High School over Primary	Private rates of return: College, University over High School	Social rates of return: Primary over illiterate	Social rates of return: High School over Primary	Social rates of return: College.University over High School
Williamson & De Vortez (1969) Imus, Males, 1966	9.0	29.0	12.0	8.0	21.0	11.0
I.L.O.(1974) All Philippines (1971)	9.0	6.5 +	8.5 ++	7.0	6.5	8.0 ++

Source: ILO: Sharing in Development (9, Tables 154,156, pp 632)

+ High School 4 years over 5.6 primary

++ College 5 or more years over High School 4 years

Thus it is found in the ILO study that, unlike India, in the Philippines both the private and social rates of return to High school education is lower than both of primary and college education. The picture is altogether different in the study by Williamson and De Vortez (1). where the rates of return to high school education are highest. This is, perhaps, due to the fact that Williamson and De Vortez have over-estimated the return to high school and under-estimated the real cost for it. (2)

3 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG UNIVERSITY GRADUATES

Let us now look at the problem of unemployment from the point of view of the three IIEP studies mentioned earlier and try to trace some of the reasons for unemployment from the samples of the three countries under comparison.

3.1 Indicators of unemployment

It has been mentioned at the very outset of this paper that unemployment incidence is dependent on the corresponding definition of "unemployment". One such definition is considered below.

3.1.1 Definition of unemployment

The Eighth International Conference of Labour Statisticians

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(1) For a detailed discussion, see Williamson and De Vortez (26)

(2) For a detailed discussion see ILO (9 pp 631)

(Geneva, 1954) defined unemployment as follows: (1)

"Persons in unemployment consist of all persons above a specified age who, on the specified day or for a specified week, were in the following category:

(a) workers available for employment whose contract of employment had been terminated or temporarily suspended and who were without a job and seeking work for pay or profit;

(b) persons who were available for work (except for minor illness) during the specified period and were seeking work for pay or profit, who were never previously employed or whose most recent status was other than that of employed (i.e. former employers etc.) or who had been in retirement;

(c) persons without a job and currently available for work who had made arrangements to start a new job at a date subsequent to the specified period;

(d) persons on temporary or indefinite lay-off without pay".

The incidence of unemployment may again be divided into long-term and short-term. On the OECD study on the long-term employment in ten developed countries of the world, it was observed that, in general, unemployment for a period of more than six months was considered as long-term unemployment in most of those countries. (1)

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(1) OECD: The Long-Term Unemployed (Paris, 1968) p.24-25

In spite of all these international recommendations and studies, definition of unemployment varies from country to country and also from time to time within the same country. The same is true in case of the three countries under comparison. To allow for comparability we shall consider the waiting period of a graduate to obtain a job as an indicator of employability for the three countries. This would allow us to compare the extent of the problem on an objective basis in spite of the fact that unemployment is definied differently in different countries.

3.1.2 Job waiting period

Data on waiting periods of the graduates in the three countries, upon graduation is shown in the following table.

Table VI Percentage Distribution of Employed Graduates by Waiting Period

Waiting Period	Country		
	Bangladesh	India	The Philippines
Less than 1 month	37.3	n.a.	0.2
1 month/less than 3 months	19.3)		(38.0
3 months " 6 "	12.7)	20.5	(27.0
6 months " 12 "	24.1)		(17.2
More than 1 year	6.6	79.5	17.6
TOTAL	100	100	100

Source: IIEP Bangladesh and Philippines study.
Note: n.a. = not available

It is seen from the table that as many as 37.3% of employed graduates in Bangladesh got into regular employment within a month of their graduation as against only 0.2% in the Philippines. A maximum number of Filipino graduates were employed between one and three months after graduation. Only 6.6 per cent of graduates in Bangladesh and 17.6 % Filipino graduates waited longer than one year for employment. However in India it is surprising to see that 79.5% of graduates had to wait for one year or more for regular employment. This is an indication of the relative employment situation of the graduates in the three countries: India facing the problem to the greatest extend, followed by the Philippines and Bangladesh.

3.2. Profile of the Unemployed Graduates

We now look into the profiles of the unemployed graduate respondents of the countries under comparison. Since unemployed graduates in the Philippines were not included, this discussion will be restricted to Bangladesh and India.

3.2.1 Sex and area of residence

The nature and the samples of the two countries can been seen in Table VII. We assume that the sampling was not biased among the two sexes and the two major areas of residence e.g. urban and rural. It is observed that a much higher precentage of male graduates compared with female ones are unemployed. The percentage of unemployed female graduates in Bangladesh is higher than that in India, while in the case of male graduates, the opposite is true. This may provide some information about the distribution of sexes in the graduate labour force of the two countries. The lower percentage of female graduates without employment is due to the fact that the proportion of graduates is much less in comparison with their male counterparts as also is the fact that a significant proportion of female graduates do not seek employment after graduation.

Distribution of unemployed graduates in rural and urban areas is in agreement with the average world phenomenon that educated unemployment is more frequent in urban areas than in rural areas. However, in the case of Bangladesh, the picture is totally different where for every four unemployed graduates three are from rural areas and only one is from an urban area. This is, perhaps due to the existence of more rural areas in this country.

Table VII Percentage distribution of unemployed graduates by sex and area of residence

Country	Sex			Area of Residence		
	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
India	86	14	100	47	53	100
Bangladesh	79	21	100	73	27	100

Source: IIEP India and Bangladesh studies

3.2.2 Guardian's level of education

Distribution of unemployed graduates according to guardian's level of education (see Table VIII) shows that a considerable percentage of unemployed graduates in the two countries are the wards of guardian's who had six to ten years of schooling. In India this percentage is the highest, while in Bangladesh it is just below those with guardian's having fifteen or more years of schooling. This trend in Bangladesh may be due to the fact that graduates having well-educated parents prefer to wait for a longer period of time prior to obtaining a more remunerative and satisfying job.

The precentage distribution of unemployed graduates having guardian's with other levels of education follows more or less the same pattern in the two countries. The incidence of about 50 per cent unemployment among graduates with illiterate guardians is a striking factor. This shows that the educational background of the guardians influences the employability of the wards and those with illiterate guardians have less chance of obtaining employment. The role of family connections, availiability of labour market information etc., are factors which depend to a great extent on the educational background of the family.

Table VIII Distribution of unemployed graduates by guardian's level of education

Years of schooling	N° of graduate respondents		N° of graduates unemployed	Percentage unemployed
		INDIA		
0	99		48	48.5
1-5	477		48	10.1
6-10	269		184	68.4
11-14	360		22	6.0
15 and above	588		178	30.3
Total	1,793		480	26.8
		BANGLADESH		
0	6		3	50.0
1-5	69		33	47.8
6-10	151		77	51.0
11-14	85		29	34.1
15 and above	20		13	65.0
Total	331		155	46.8

Source: IIEP India and Bangladesh studies

3.2.3 Guardians' level of income

In Bangladesh it is observed that the highest percentage of unemployed graduates comes from the families in the lower income group, whereas the lowest percentage belongs to the upper income group. (See Table IX). Thus it appears that in the case of Bangladesh the incidence of unemployment amongs university graduates has a direct relationship with their family incomes.

Table IX Distribution of Unemployed Graduates by level of guardian's income

Upper	Upper Middle	Lower Middle	Lower
6.5	30.2	29.4	33.9

Source: IIEP Bangladesh study

Note: Lower income (yearly) less than Tk. 5,000
Lower Middle income " less than Tk, 10,000
Upper Middle income " less than Tk.10,000-20,000
Upper income " above Tk. 20,000

3.3. Reasons for unemployment

3.3.1 Individual reasons

3.3.1.1. Academic considerations

From the responses of the Indian sample of unemployed graduates it is found that one of the reasons for unemployment was lack of minimum qualifications for the desired job coupled with poor campus background. The percentage of responses on this score was 19.7 (see Table X). In Bangladesh the study was more a mismatch between the academic specialisation and job requirement as the reason was stated to be selection of the wrong specialisation. 14.1 per cent of Bangladeshi respondent unemployed graduates mentioned this reason. In both cases the reasons are academic, either the wrong qualification or the wrong institution. This shows the need for relating education with employment demand.

Table X Percentage distribution of job seekers according to reasons for failure to get a job

Reasons	India	Bangladesh
1. Academic	19.7	14.1
2. Labour market is too competitive or poor performance in interview	11.7	19.8
3. No help from guardians, relations, friends and others	53.3	36.3
4. Others	15.3	29.8

Source: IIEP India and Bangladesh studies

3.3.1.2 Labour market selection procedure

Table X further shows that 11.7 per cent of the Indian respondents mention poor performance in interviews as another reason for unemployment, whereas 19.8 per cent of their Bangladeshi respondents mention labour market as being too competitive, to allow them to be employed. Here again it is a question of supply and demand. Over supply of job-seekers for limited numbers of jobs will automatically lead to the rejection of a number of candidates who will have the feeling that they did not do well in the interview or they were not selected for facing tough competition among the candidates. In the case of the Philippines this may not be a very important factor as selection for a job in that country is mainly dependent on recommendations from guardians/relatives, friends or teachers.

3.3.1.3 Lack of help from relations, friends and others

53.3 per cent of the responses in India fall within this category. This percentage had two major sub-divisions whereby it was revealed that 29.1 per cent of the respondents mentioned "no help from relations" as a factor whereas 24.3 per cent of them mentioned 'no help from political connections' as one factor. On the other hand, 36.3 per cent of the respondents mentioned this as a possible reason for unemployment. Thus it is found that in both countries the unemployed graduates feel that they, possibly, would not have remained unemployed if they had influencial guardians or if they had received proper help from their relations and political connections. This reveals, to some extent, the nature of selection procedures in the two countries which has some similarity with the situation in the Philippines. But in this case, as mentioned earlier, one has to think seriously whether there will be selection of less able candidates in preference to more able, having no influencial connections with the selection authorities.

3.3.1.4 Other reasons

There were few more reasons mentioned by the respondents in the two countries (see Table IX). In order to raise the life-standard of the members of scheduled castes and backward communities, the Government of India has made it obligatory that all state governments and large enterprises fix a quota of employees to be selected from these castes and communities. In the Indian sample under consideration, 15.3 per cent of the respondents feel that they could not secure any job because of this 'bar' on their being considered for the posts earmarked for members of these communities. This is not considered as a reason in Bangladesh. However, in Bangladesh, other reasons, such as financial difficulties, job preference and guardian's objection to looking for jobs were mentioned. 39.8 per cent of the responses fell in this category. A major number in this category were unable to obtain the preferred job. 62 percent of the respondents were from the rural areas, 72 of which were male and 54 per cent have parents with six to ten years schooling. 44 per cent were from families in the lower income bracket. These findings give an indication of the relationship between uneployment and place of residence, sex, family education and family income, in Bangladesh. These relationships are more or less the same in India, except for the residence of the respondents.

Individual reasons for the delay in obtaining a job in the Philippines were given in a different manner. Responses in this cases may be seen in the following table:

TABLE XI Percentage distribution of graduates by reasons for delay in obtaining jobs

Reasons	Percentage
1. No job opportunity	33.4
2. Low salary offer	22.7
3.Unsatisfactory working conditions	10.3
4. Less advancement opportunities	17.7
5. Job too far away	14.8
6. Others	1.1

Source: IIEP Philippines study

Thus it is observed that a maximum number of respondents in this country attribute the reasons of their previous unemployment to the non-availability of a job. Low salaries and less promotion prospects also play a large part in determining employment status of graduates. It is also noticed that as many as 14.8 per cent of the graduate job-seekers preferred remaining unemployed to accepting a job which is too far away from his place of residence.

3.3.2 Information gap between the worlds of education and work

In IIEP's India study there were some items on the sources of career information in the questionnaires sent to the students and the unemployed graduates. The responses from the unemployed graduates according to sex and residential area as given in Table XII. It is seen from this table that both males and females depend mostly on their parents and relatives for career information. Staff at the institution last attended is the next best source of information (16.8%) and it is found that more females (18.8%) are dependent on this source than the males (15.6%).

Similarly the staff of the presently-attended institution are cited as this third best source (12.3%) for career information.

Taking parents, relatives and teachers as a single source of career guidance, the percentage of males and females was 58.4 and 63.2 per cent respectively. Unemployed graduates have very little faith in the mass media as a source of career guidance although the percentage of male (7.9%) and female (7.7%) who referred to this source is more or less the same. However, the same unemployed graduates depend a lot on the mass media for information on employment (See Table XV). More male than female students mention their career masters and fellow students as such a source.

Utilisation of different sources of information by the rural and urban unemployed graduates followed more or less the same pattern as described above. The distinct features among them are that more rural than urban graduates are dependent on the teachers while more urban than rural are dependent on relatives, fellow students, the mass media, career masters and counselling bureaux, for sources of career information. This in some way shows that graduates from the rural areas are to some extent handicapped in obtaining career guidance.

TABLE XII - Percentage distribution of unemployed graduates by sources of career information, sex and residential area (India)

Sources of Career Information	Sex			Residential Area		
	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Staff (present institution)	11.3	17.1	12.3	14.5	11.1	12.6
Parents and relations	31.4	27.4	30.6	28.1	32.4	30.5
Peers	9.5	6.0	8.8	8.4	9.2	8.9
Previous employment	6.8	5.1	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.4
Mass media	7.9	7.7	7.9	6.8	8.9	8.0
Staff (instituion last attended)	15.6	18.8	16.3	18.9	14.3	16.3
Career Master	8.6	5.1	7.9	6.8	8.6	7.8
Counselling Bureaux	2.5	0.8	2.2	0.8	3.2	2.1
Others	6.4	12.0	7.6	9.3	6.0	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: IIEP India study

In the case of students, for the selection of possible future career and study courses, it was again found that the highest number (29.4%) was dependent on their parents and relatives. This is to be expected in the Indian way of life. The next important source seems to be teachers from the institution last attended, as well as the present institution. Thus it was found that more than half (55.8%) of the

student responses cited teachers, parents and relatives as the source of career information. Only 6.6 per cent of the respondents referred to their career master as such a source. This may be due to the non-availability of career masters in a large number of secondary schools. Reference to counselling bureaux by only 2.9 per cent of the respondents shows that they are not considered as a good source for information for this purpose.

In Bangladesh, the situation is not very clear because of the lack of information in this connection. The IIEP study reveals that there are, or were, some kind of bureaux or departments attached to the Universities of Dacca and Rajsahi, Bangladesh Agricultural University and the Bangaldesh University of Engineering and Technology. However, these bureaux and departments failed to provide information to a large majority of the students in order to meet their wide ranging educational and occupational career needs.

The case in the Philippines is also similar to that in Bangladesh in this respect. In the Philippines the guidance counsellors, especially in high schools, often deal with problem children thus dissuading the large mass of normal children from availing of their services. The number of counsellors in schools and colleges is also insufficient to meet the requirements of the students. Moreover, career and educational guidance is far from being professionalised in this country.

Thus it may be concluded that in all the three countries, there is no institutionalised form of career and educational guidance for students. As a result the students are still dependent on their parents, relatives, teachers and friends for such guidance and information. This may be one of the reasons for the mismatch between the world of education and the world of work and subsequent unemployment among the graduates.

3.3.3 Mismatch between training and job requirement

Usefulness of the university training or specialisation in obtaining a job is perceived by the employed graduates of the two countries - India and Bangladesh - in quite different way (See Table XIII). There are, of course, some similarities in the responses of the engineering and agricultural graduates of the two countries, where almost all the respondents feel that the university training is either very, or moderately, useful in getting a job. However, in the case of commercial graduates, half of the Bangladeshi respondents are of the opinion that the university training is not at all useful in getting a job, whereas the percentage of Indian respondents in this category is 23.8%. In the case of science graduates the picture is almost the same in the two countries. Responses from social science and arts graduates in the two countries are more or less comparable. Table XIII further shows that a considerable number of graduates in the arts, science, commerce and social sciences are of the opinion that university training is of no use in getting a job. This is an indicator of the mismatch between training and job requirements.

TABLE XIII Percentage distribution of employed graduates by specialisation and their usefulness in obtaining a job

Specialisation	India			Bangladesh		
	Very useful	Moderately Useful	Not at all useful	Very useful	Moderately useful	Not at all useful
Science	52.0	34.6	13.4	48.3	27.6	24.1
Engineering	62.3	35.7	2.0	84.4	15.6	0
Agriculture	50.0	50.0	0	80.7	16.1	3.2
Social sciences	24.3	45.8	29.9	25.0	50.0	25.0
Commerce	28.5	47.7	23.8	25.0	25.0	50.0
Arts	34.3	47.5	18.2	33.3	46.7	20.0

Source: IIEP India and Bangladesh study

A better indication of the above-stated mismatch in the three countries under comparison can be had from Table XIV. It is found that about 72 per cent of the employed graduates of the Philippines as against only about 59 per cent and 61 per cent of India and Bangladesh are of the opinion that the university training is very useful in performing the job. On the contrary about 14 per cent of the employed graduates in India as against about 10 per cent in Bangladesh and the Philippines are of the opinion that the university training is not at all useful in performing the job. Thus, one may conclude that there is a better match between university training and work in the Philippines than in either India or Bangladesh. This may be a factor for more unemployment in the latter two countries.

Table XIV Percentage distribution of employed graduates according to the perceived usefulness of education in performing the present job

Degree of usefulness/ country	India	Bangladesh	The Philippines
Very useful	58.6	60.5	71.5
Moderately useful	27.7	29.7	27.4
Not at all useful	13.7	9.8	1.1

Source: IIEP India Bangladesh and Philippines studies

3.3.4 Lack of institutional mechanism in job placement and job search

Job search procedures were studied among both employed and unemployed graduates in India, while in Bangladesh and the Philippines it was studied among the employed graduates only. An analysis of this procedure is expected to reveal the institutional mechanisms in the method of employment of graduates.

In India the graduate job-seekers were asked to indicate the sources of information on which they depended in order to know of possible vacancies. Evidently they had more than one source to mention. Table XV shows the distribution of these job-seekers according to information source and sex.

TABLE XV Percentage distribution of unemployed graduates by sources of job information and sex (India)

Information Source	Sex		
	Male	Female	Total
Newspaper/Government Gazette	51.9	49.5	51.6
Employment exchange	28.1	29.8	28.2
Friends and relatives	13.0	14.4	13.2
Others	7.0	6.3	7.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: IIEP India Study

It is evident from the table that more than half (51.6%) of the job-seekers received information about existing vacancies through Newspapers or Government Gazette. Thus it is found that the unemployed graduates consider the above source as the last job searching mechanism. Employment exchanges are considered as an information source by a large number (28.2%) but in this category the number of males (28.1%) is less than the females by 1.7 per cent. This shows that employment exchanges are not yet the most popular source of information. Job-seeking by friends and relatives is not very popular in this country which is reflected by the fact that only 13.2 per cent of respondents cited this source.

In the case of employed graduates the information sources used for obtaining the present job are shown in the following table.

TABLE XVI Percentage distribution of employed graduates by source of information for present job

Information Source	India	Bangladesh
Newspaper advertisment	47.7	55.3
Friends and relatives	23.3	14.9
Others	29.0	29.8
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: IIEP India and Bangladesh studies

In the table it is shown that in both countries about half the employed graduates secured their jobs through newspaper advertisments. In the case of Bangladesh the percentage of graduates (55.3%) obtaining jobs by this method is higher by 7.5 per cent than their counterparts in India. This shows that the mass media is a better information source for job-placement in Bangladesh than in India. The percentage of respondents mentioning friends and relatives as information sources for jobs is quite high in India (23.3%) as compared with Bangladesh (14.9%). It needs mention here that the corresponding number of responses from India has been obtained by adding the numbers of responses against 'internal advertisment" and "personal contact" on the assumption that the information about both of them may be brought by 'friends and relatives'. Thus, there is a possibility of over-estimation of this number. Taking the above assumption as correct, it may be concluded that the percentage of respondents using other information sources in both countries are more or less the same. One striking factor in this case is that none of the respondents mentioned employment exchange as an information source. This is totally contrary to what is observed in Table X where as many as 23.8 per cent of unemployed graduates mentioned employment exchange as a possible information source for a job. One possible reason for this disparity may be the over estimation of this source by the unemployed graduates because of their unemployment. Another possibility may be the lack of confidence of the employed graduates in this source.

The second possibility cited above is very much the case in the Philippines. Because of the free market economy in the country and the personalised relationship prevailing in Philippino society, the recommendation of friends and relatives, counts mostly in job placements (Table XVII). This is followed by Company personnel offices. The school placement offices are not widespread in the country. Thus in many places the teachers/instructors recommendations are replacing the school placement office.

The position of media advertisments in the Filipino context deserves special attention. In such a situation the employment of well connected, less qualified graduates at the expense of the less well connected, more qualified ones cannot be ruled out.

TABLE XVII Job placement mechanism by ranks

Mechanism	Rank
1. Friends/relatives recommendation	1
2. Company Personnel Office	2
3. Teachers/Instructors recommendation	3
4. School Placement Office	4
5. Government Placement Office	5
6. Media Advertisement	6
7. Others	7

Source: IIEP Philippines study

3.3.5 Lack of self-employment opportunity

It is needless to mention that opportunity for self-employment amongst the graduates will reduce the problem of their unemployment to a great extent. The attitudes of students, unemployed graduates and employed graduates towards self-employment were analysed in the IIEP Ihdia study from different points of view. (1)

Amongst the students those who are presently unemployed, the majority would prefer to be self-employed. Of th already in employment, you will see from Table XVIII the number who would prefer self-employment. Unemployed graduates, both by curren employment status and occupation of parents have differing opinions on the factors which discourage them from being self-employed. However, financial constraint is considered as the major factor. Other reasons to a varied degree, are stated to be lack of training, lack of national policy for self-employment, lack of security and irregular earnings, lack of qualities (e.g. leadership and application, necessary for self-employment). (See Table XIX). Employed graduates mentioned the above five reasons to a varying degree, depending on the nature and sector of their present job and the occupation of their parents. However, in this case, it is found that financial inability is the most important drawback to self-employment. The major factors for discouraging self-employment were given as follows (according to present employment status):

- insecure future and irregular earnings,
  - among engineers and accountants;
- inability to acquire necessary capital
  - among manager, scientists, clerks, and other occupations;
- lack of training in self-employment
  - among accountants. (See Table XX)

(1) For a detailed discussion, see IIEP India study (Chapter 10)

Sectorwise it is found that the private sector graduate employees have more liking for self-employment than their public sector counterparts. Major factors again vary according to the occupation of their parents.

There was no specific mention of this aspect in the questionnaire for the IIEP Bangladesh and Philippines studies. Nevertheless there are definite indications in both the studies that self-employment may reduce the extent of graduate unemployment in both countries.

Thus it is evident from all three studies that lack of sufficient opportunity for self-employment is one of the important factors for graduate unemployment in all countries under study.

TABLE XVIII Percentage distribution of students preferring self-employment, according to present employment status

Full-time	Part-time	Occasional	Unemployed	Total
4.8	2.8	2.1	90.3	100

Source: IIEP India study

TABLE XIX Percentage distribution of unemployed graduates by factors discouraging self-employment and nature of employment

Nature of employment	Factors discouraging selfemployment					
	1	2	3	4	5	Tota
Regular	26.9	15.4	17.3	19.2	21.2	100
Casual	29.5	8.7	24.2	15.4	22.2	100
Total	28.9	10.4	22.4	16.4	21.9	100

Source: IIEP India study.

Note:

1. Inability to acquire capital
2. Lack of qualities needed for self-employment
3. Lack of training
4. Lack of security and irregularity in earnings
5. Lack of national policy for self-employment

TABLE XX Percentage distribution of employed graduates by factors discouraging self-employment and nature of present employment

Present employment status	Factors encouraging self-employment					
	1	2	3	4	5 Any other factor	Total
Engineer	30.4	4.5	8.8	33.0	17.0 6.3	100
Agricultural worker	50.0	-	-	-	50.0 _	100
Manager	45.4	-	18.2	18.2	9.1 9.1	100
Clerk etc.	33.7	8.2	13.7	22.8	17.7 3.9	100
Accountant	20.0	-	30.0	30.0	20.0 -	100
Scientist	41.7	-	16.7	33.3	8.3 -	100
Others	36.3	4.3	13.0	28.0	12.8 5.6	100
Total	35.0	5.2	13.0	26.8	14.9 5.1	100

Source: IIEP India study

Note: as in Table XIX

4 SUGGESTED MEASURES FOR REDUCING UNEMPLOYMENT

The analysis of the reasons for unemployment leads us to some key areas which need the attention of both educational and economic planners. Suitable measures taken in those areas may reduce the overall unemployment situation of any country. We start discussing these measures from the viewpoint of different individuals

4.1 Measures as seen by different individuals

In the IIEP India study different individuals - students, unemployed graduates and graduates - were asked to mention the degree of effectiveness of a given list of measures which could be taken to reduce this problem. The replies from these individuals are shown in Table XXI.

TABLE XXI Percentage distribution of respondents according to current employment status and suggested measures for reducing unemployment

	Students	Unemployed Graduates	Employed Graduates
1. Control admission based on employability of graduates	6.0	3.9	6.9
2. Develop better interaction between employers and educational institutions	11.3	12.4	10.6
3. Improve career counselling for students	10.6	11.9	10.0
4. Establish placement services and planned systems of job allocation	11.4	12.2	10.6
5. Develop job oriented educational programmes at higher levels of education	10.8	11.2	11.0
6. Promote self-employment with soft loans to graduates	10.4	10.8	10.4
7. Develop economic policy, oriented towards creation of jobs	10.5	10.5	11.0
8. Establish fair recruitment and promotion policy for all employing sectors	10.1	9.3	10.7
9. Others	18.9	17.8	18.8

Source: IIEP India study

It is observed that all the individuals consider reasons 2-8 as very effective or effective in reducing unemployment among university graduates.

No category was in favour of controlling university admission based on employability of graduates. On the other hand a quite considerable proportion of them think that the economic policy of the countries should be developed in such a way as to create more jobs for university graduates: This is an overall economic aspect which may not come under the scope of education. The other measures may be combined in the following broad groups:

(1) Better interaction among employers and institutions of higher education regarding skill needs for jobs, content of current education in view of these needed skills and employment possibilities of graduates.

(2) Improved career and educational counselling at all levels of education.

(3) Institutionalised mechanism for job search and placement coupled with fair recruitment and promotion policies at all sectors of employment.

(4) Promotion of self-employment opportunities.

These are areas where the educational system has a role to play.

We now take up these four issues in the context of the three countries under comparison and discuss their suitability in reducing unemployment.

4.2 Better interaction between employers and educational institutions

It has been mentioned in all the three IIEP studies that there is a wide mismatch between the world of education and the world of work. This mismatch has also been discussed in section 3.3.3 of this paper. Thus there is a need for bringing these two worlds closer so that they may benefit from each other, thereby increasing the employability of the graduates of the education system. This may be done by instituting a mechanism in each university which will keep constant watch on the skills needed in the graduate labour force and have a constant dialogue with possible employers about their requirements. This mechanism may also be utilised in updating the contents of current education in respect of the skills needed in the labour market. It has also been suggested that recurrent education be introduced at all levels so that education and work could be more related. In the case of India, some have even suggested that the teachers be sent for practical work experience in the employment institutions to make them more oriented towards the world of work in the organisation of their instructions.

4.3 Improved career and educational counselling

It has been mentioned in section 3.3.2 of this paper that the situation of unemployment among university graduates is aggravated because of the absence of institutionalised career and educational guidance in all the three countries under comparison. This guidance is absolutely essential, firstly to help students in selecting a career suitable to their capabilities and specialisation. Thus there is a need for professionalising career and educational guidance in all three countries.

4.4 Institutionalised mechanism for job search and job placement

In view of what has been discussed in section 3.3.4 of this paper it may be stated that the processes for job search and placement vary widely in the three countries. In the Philippines it is also found that a maximum number of eployees are recruited through the gate-hiring method. (1) For job placing, they ranked a placement office attached to each academic department of the school/college in the employers' area as priority 1 and one central office for each school/college as priority 2. Thus it is seen that the establishment of an institutionalised mechanism for job search and job placement could be an instrument to reduce the extent and effect of uneployment among university graduates.

4.5 Promotion of self-employment opportunities

It is being increasingly realised by all those involved in economic and educational planning that the supply of an educated labour force is and will be outpacing the growth of the number of jobs available on the labour market, at the present economy growth rate. Thus one of the ways of reducing unemployment of the surplus labour is their self-employment or employment in the rural and unorganised sectors. As discussed in section 3.3.5 of this paper, a major reason for the unwillingness of graduates in being self-employed is financial inability and insecurity for the future income and career possibilities. It is felt that with proper planning the government of each country may be in a position go give more incentive to university graduates for being self-employed, thereby reducing the unemployment situation in the country. It may also be necessary for the educational system to identify attitudes and aptidues that promote an individual to be self-employed and introduce them in the programmes of instruction.

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(1) IIEP Philippines study (Chapter 7)

4.6 Establishment of institutional structure

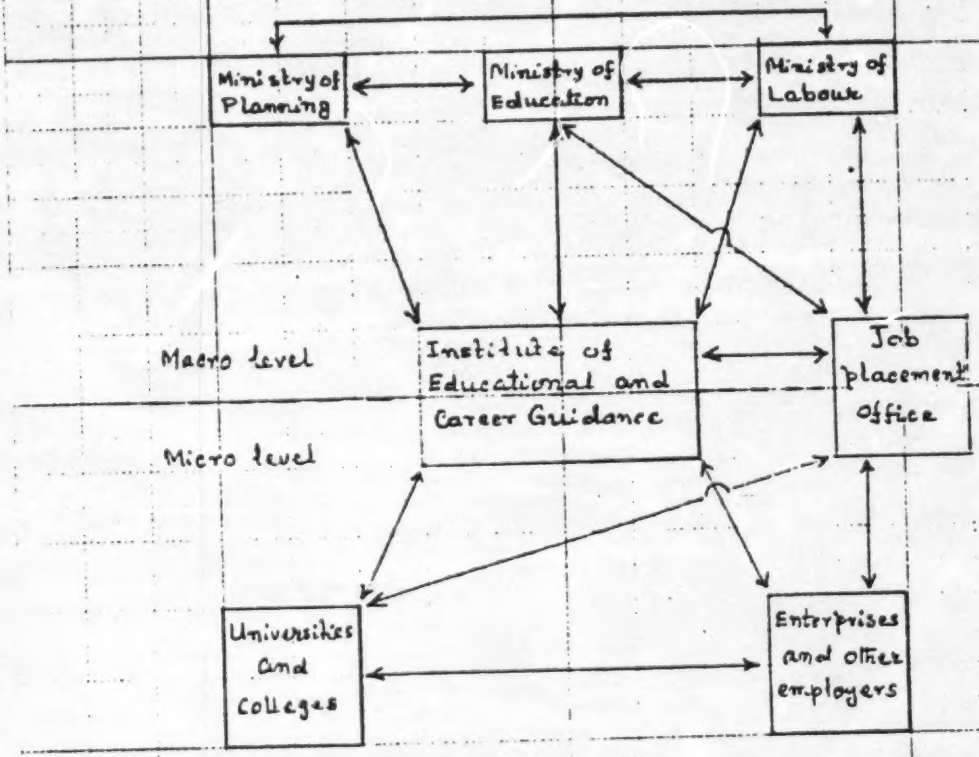
The discussion on the measures for reducing unemployment leads to the necessary of an institutionalised structure which can take care of most of these measures. One may, perhaps, think of a central organisation in the form of a national institute of educational and career guidance. The structure of such an institute is shown in Figure I. The institute may be statutory in nature and will have connections with the Ministries of Planning, Education and Labour at the macro level and with the universities, colleges and companies or other employers at the micro level.

The functions of the institute will be the collection of data, surveys and research, collection of job descriptions, job analyses, collection of job information and dissemination of this information to the universities, colleges and job seekers. They will also control and evaluate procedures of job information, job search and job placement, training of guidance specialists, helping graduates for self employment. It will also work in collaboration with the existing job placement organisation, if any.

Through the training of guidance counsellors, the institute will help improve educational and career guidance and ensure availability of qualified personnel to each university and college in the country. College or university guidance counsellors will be in constant touch, both with the institute and with the students, teachers and administrators of the universities and colleges. Thus at the micro level, the counsellors will perform the functions of the institute.

Through undertaking surveys and research, the institute will also be able to advise educational institutions in respect of necessary revisions or reform in the curriculum to suit the needs of employment for the graduates. The institute will also be able to help the graduates with self-employment by collecting information about different unorganised sectors. Any soft loan the government may decide to extend to the graduates for self-employment

Figure I. Institutional structure



may also be given through this institute which will be in a better position to decide on the suitability and amount of the loan.

In a vast country like India, where states are autonomous in respect of education, each state may have one such institute. For Bangladesh and the Philippines, there may be one central institute. It is of course, doubtful that private enterprises will wish to circulate job information through such an institute or whether they will prefer a central placement office. However, it is hoped that they will increase their faith in such organisations if they find that they are obtaining more suitable candidates for the jobs available.

5 CONCLUSION

An attempt has been made to analyse unemployment incidence of the three countries under comparison. There are certain limitations which have already been mentioned in the introductory section. It is also realised that the unemployment incidence of any country is dependent on the growth rate of the population and the growth rate of the economy of the country, together with its investment policy. However, the suggestions offered by reducing unemployment are worth considering in any country context. It may, perhaps, be argued that there is nothing new in the suggestions offered. The paper does not claim any originality in formulating measures required for reducing unemployment. The paper has, however, been able to justify those measures by facts gathered from the three countries. The institute for educational and career guidance with its suggested structure and its justification is, perhaps, something worth considering. It is expected that some steps taken in this direction will go a long way in reducing graduate unemployment within the constraints stated above.

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